489 Huang-p'u River and a seven-mile railway to
361 benefit from its port of Wu-sung (Woosung) at the Yangtze (Whamgpoo) River estuary. Wu-sung faces Ch'ung-ming Island on the estuary, and the forts on Wu-sung shore defend the entrance to the Yangtze River. From Shanghai it is about 450 miles to Chi-lung (Keelung) on Formosa and about 460 miles to Nagasaki. Since the Communist occupation, the city of Shanghai has been undergoing a great deal of reorganization. Over one-hundred industrial concerns have been moved outside of the city as a sanitary measure. The northwest section of the city, downwind, is being developed into an industrial "city within a city." [349] A gigantic structure, begun on May 4, 1954, is rising on the former Hatung Garden on the western side of central Shanghai and is to be named "the Great Hall of Chinese-Soviet Friendship." Topped by a 330-foot tower, it will be the highest point in Shanghai.

There are three main routes inland from Shanghai: the Shanghai-Nanking Railway, the Shanghai-Hangchow Railway, and the Yangtze River. Nanking is, at present, the provincial capital of Kiangsu. The city is encircled by a wall twenty-one miles long -- the longest of its kind in the world. [873] The central section of this erstwhile national capital has been undergoing a face-lifting, and a cultural center is rapidly rising with Nanking University and Nanking Engineering College as its center. The

668 241 cadre was the instrument of land redistribution and brought into the countryside the first major change decreed by Peking. The cadre organized the Peasants' Association in the village and manipulates its meetings and its officers It was the cadre who worked up sentiment and organized the "speak bitterness" meetings in the days of the Land Reform Movement -- occasions used to the full to attack the old familial order in the villages. It is the cadre who organizes the "struggle meetings" in which villagers are made to engage in criticism and self-criticism in order to undermine the old values and instill the new.

The cadres also pushed the organization of "mutual-aid teams" for the sharing of labor and equipment, an effort that struck at the familial organization of farm labor and apparently met with serious difficulties.[16] More recently the cadre has been the instrument for the concerted attempt to build producer co-operatives in the countryside. In such major efforts as the attempt to put Hunan rice farming on a two-crop basis (hitherto only done further south), the cadres were reportedly responsible for training 100,000 farmers.[17]

• 873 208 The cadre carried on the effort to destroy traditional mores. He publicizes the new marriage law, discourages or prevents arranged marriages,

16. W. W. Rostow The Prospects of Communist China, Cambridge, 1954, p. 84.

17. Reported by New China News Agency, Changsha, April 20 1955; Survey of China Mainland Press (SCMP), No. 1036, April 28, 1955.

208 873 lectures on sanitation, and. sometimes with the help of radio, films, and mobile theatrical units dramatizes the issues of the day, the need for the farmer to sacrifice, to send his sons to the army, to contribute labor to community projects, to inform on his neighbors, to buy bonds. and so forth. The cadre establishes "winter schools" in which the peasants are given intensive political indoctrination practical training. and instruction in reading and writing. Hunan reported that 2.500,000 peasants were enrolled in these schools in the winter of 1955.[18]

425 668 The age-old drive of the vigorous peasant to increase his family's land holdings is checked by fear lest he be re-classified as a "rich peasant" and be subject to higher taxes and other pressures. Yet what the Communists deplore as the peasant's "spontaneous capitalistic tendency" has not been crushed and the landholdings of the more enterprising grow in size.[19]

474 668 The effort to force various forms of co-operative work has not been completely successful.

> "...when a serious team-use of labor, tools and farm animals was attempted. a variety of unsatisfactory results emerged; quarrels among the families interfered with efficient output; no one assumed responsibility for the upkeep of communal property; the claims of inefficient members violated the sense of equity of the more efficient..."[20]

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18. People's Daily, Jan. 30. 1955; SCMP 984, pp. 30-31.

19. Rostow op. cit., p. 152, cites the Peking People's Daily, Feb. 15. 1954.

20. Rostow. op. cit., p. 84.

[p. 223]

871 or were attending schools.[3] In 1947, there were 207 institutes of higher learning throughout the country. But this number was unsatisfactory to 873 the Government; the Ministry of Education announced that the Central Government devoted only 4.3 per cent[4] of its 1946 budget to education, which is not quite one-third of the amount designated for this purpose by the Constitution.

871 In East China, 77 schools for advanced education were in operation in 1947. Other pre-Communist figures on education in East China cited in Table I will offer comparison with developments under the Communist regime.

[See Table 1. on next page.]

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3. The Education Yearbook of China, 1948, pp. 1, 397-1, 483.

4. Chung-hua Nien-chien, 1948 [The China Yearbook, 1948] Nanking, Chung-hua nien-chien she. 1948. p. 1, 623.

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872 took jobs in agricultural production co-operatives as junior technicians and office assistants. 33

B. Secondary Schools

873 In 1950 the secondary schools throughout Mainland China submitted to the initial stages of consolidation and reorganization in accordance with the Communist policy for education. As a result secondary school enrollment decreased in certain areas; in other areas, schools were barely able to stay in operation. The subsequent establishment of additional middle schools brought the total number of registered students (including those of the secondary normal schools and "proletarian, accelerated" middle schools) to 3,628,264 by September 1954.[34] This figure was claimed to be double that of the enrollment in 1948.

In East China in 1950 there were 101 secondary schools in Shantung 372 in Kiangsu and 108 in northern Anhwei Province.[35] The emphasis in the development of secondary schools has been on technical training. By October 1952 secondary technical school students in East China numbered 51 900, or more than twice the number enrolled in 1949.[36]

The aim of secondary education, according to the Government Administration Council,

33. SCMP, No. 1072, Hong Kong Amer. Cons. Gen'l., August 1954, p. 7.

34. People's Education Oct. 1954, p. 34.

35. Cheng-fu Kung-tso Pao-kao Hui-pien 1950 [Compendium of Gov't Reports, 1950], Peking, Jen-min ch'u-pan-she, 1951, pp. 631, 647 667, 687.

36. Liberation Daily Oct. 1, 1952 p. 5.

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873 is to cultivate nationalism but not at the expense of "internationalism," to teach the students to love their country respect labor, and realize their duties and responsibilities to their country.[37] To carry out this official line, a system of indoctrination was inaugurated for secondary school principals and other administrators. The commissioners of education of each provincial government were responsible for the supervision of indoctrination. By October 1952, over 28,000 school personnel in East China had been indoctrinated.[38] According to Communist reports, this represented about 75 per cent of all the secondary school teachers and administrators in East China at that time.

Some important changes were made in the curricula for secondary schools. To the natural science courses was added a subject called "elementary Darwinianism." To the social sciences courses was added a study of the Common Program, later replaced by the study of the Constitution of 1954. During the past five years scheduled courses were occasionally suspended at the last minute because the official textbooks were not ready.[39] Many textbooks were revised several times to measure up to the official Party line as interpreted by Peking.

C. Institutions of Higher Learning

In principle, the control of institutions of

37. Chou En-lai, "Directive on Improvement and Expansion of Secondary Education," People's Handbook 1955, pp. 571-73.

38. Liberation Daily. Oct. 1, 1952, p. 5.

39. People's Education, August, 1954, pp. 63-64.

873 higher learning is centralized under the Ministry of Higher Education, except for the teacher's training program which falls under the Ministry of Education (See Chart 3). In practice, Government Administration Council has instructed the various central government ministries in charge of different industries to "supervise and co-ordinate" the programs for advanced technical schools. These central government ministries in turn can appoint local government personnel to take charge of the schools in order to maintain close supervision. In this connection, provincial governments were given the responsibility of providing the schools with political guidance.[40] With this system of control, the political conversion of the universities and colleges has been carried out with very little delay. The administrative reorganization of these institutions, however ran into more difficulties because each of the established universities was an academic entity with a definite personality of its own. An account of the universities in transition was presented by Fei Hsiao-t'ung, noted sociologist and senior professor at the Tsing Hua University, in his book, Revamping the Universities.[41]

Among the more acute difficulties experienced during the conversion and reorganization of unversities were:[42] (1) the "thought reform" of college professors who were subject to public criticism by their students and (2) the transfer of certain departments from one university to another, which disrupted the administratior

40. "Decisions Concerning Revision of Relations of Leadership for Institutions of Higher Learning," announced by Gov't Adm. Council, Oct. 1, 1953. People's Handbook 1955, pp. 558-59.

41. [next page.]

873 of both institutions. A total of 60,300 persons, about 93 per cent of all the college professors and administrators in East China, had completed their thought reform" by October 1952.[43]

By April 1952, the major reorganizations of colleges had been completed. Chekiang University was renamed Chekiang Engineering College and also absorbed the mechanical engineering and civil engineering departments of Chih-chiang University. A separate college of engineering was created by combining the electrical and chemical engineering departments of Nanking University and the department of architecture of Chih-chiang University.[44] In

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41. Ta-hsüeh Ti Kai-tsao [Revamping the Universities], Shanghai, Shang-hai ch'u-pan-kung-ssu, 1950.

42. Accounts of thought reform for college professors are presented (possibly with some exaggeration) in such works as Ts'ui Shu-ch'in Ta-lu Hsüeh-jen Ti Pei-chü [Tragedy of Scholars on the Mainland], Taipei, Chung-yang wen-wu kung-ying she, 1953; and Kung-fei Ti Nu-i Wen-hua Yü Chiao-yü [The Slave Culture and Education of the Chinese Communists], Taipei, Sixth Section, Central Reform Committee, Nationalist Party, 1952.

43. Liberation Daily, October 1, 1952, p. 5.

44. Ibid., April 17, 1952, p. 1.

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(Table II faces p. 330.) (a)

Table II. Institutions of Higher Learning in East China (1954)

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NAME	LOCATION	NUMBER OF DEPARTMENTS	NUMBER OF SPECIAL COURSES	SPECIALIZATION
Fu-tan University	Shanghai	10	none	General
Nanking University	Nanking	12	2	General
Shantung University	Tsingtao	10	none	General
Amoy University	Amoy	8	none	General
University of Communications	Shanghai	4	3	Engineering, communications
Chekiang University	Hangchow	5	4	Engineering
Nanking Engineering College	Nanking	7	4	Engineering
Shantung Engineering College	Tsinan	2	2	Engineering
T'ung-chi University	Shanghai	2	2	Civil engineering
Hua-tung College of Aeronautics	Nanking	1	none	Aeronautical engineering
Hua-tung Hydraulic Engineering College	Nanking	1	2	Hydraulic engineering
Hua-tung Chemical Engineering College	Shanghai	1	none	Chemical engineering
Hua-tung Textile Engineering College	Shanghai	2	1	Textile machinery
Hunan Special School of mining	Hunan	2	none	Mining engineering
Tsingtao Engineering College	Tsingtao	2	1	Hydraulic engineering, machinery
Nanking Special School of Aeronautics	Nanking	none	1	Aeronautical engineering
Su-nan Special School of Engineering	Soochow	none	2	Mechanical, civil engineering
Nanking College of Agriculture	Nanking	7	none	Agriculture
Nanking College of Forestry	Nanking	3	none	Forestry
Chekiang College of Agriculture	Hangchow	4	1	Agriculture
Shantung College of Agriculture	Tsinan	6	none	Agriculture
Fukien College of Agriculture	Foochow	3	none	Agriculture
Anhwei College of Agriculture	Hefei	2	1	Agriculture
Su-pei College of Agriculture	Yang-chow	3	none	Agriculture
Shanghai College of Finance and Economics	Shanghai	6	none	Finance, economics
Hua-tung College of Political science and Law	Shanghai	1	none	Political Science, law
Shanghai Medical College (no.1)	Shanghai	2	none	Medicine
Shanghai Medical College (no.2)	Shanghai	2	none	Medicine

[Face p. 330 (a)]

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Table II (continued)

NAME	LOCATION	NUMBER OF DEPARTMENTS	NUMBER OF SPECIAL COURSES	SPECIALIZATION
Kiangsu Medical College	Chen-chiang	2	none	Medicine
Su-pei Medical College-	Han-t'ung	1	none	Medicine
Chekiang Medical College	Hangchow	2	none	Medicine
Shantung Medical College	Tsinan	2	none	Medicine
Fukien Medical College	Foochow	1	none	Medicine
Anhwei Medical College	Hofei	1	none	Medicine
Hua-tung College of Pharmaceuticals	Nanking	1	none	Pharmaceuticals
Shanghai Special School of Russian	Shanghai	none	1	Russian
Central College of Music (East China Branch)	Shanghai	4	none	Music
Central College of Fine Arts (East China Branch)	Shanghai	2	none	Fine arts
Hua-tung Special School of Fine arts	Wu-hsi	5	none	Fine arts
Hua-tung College of Physical Education	Shanghai	1	none	Physical education
Hua-tung University for Teacher Training	Shanghai	11	none	General
Shantung Teachers' College	Tsinan	6	8	General
Chekiang Teachers' College	Hangchow	8	7	General
Fukien Teachers' College	Foochow	10	9	General
Kiangsu Teachers' College	Soochow	6	5	General
Anhwei Teachers' College	Wu-hu	5	8	General
Nanking Teachers(College	Nanking	9	1	General
Su-pei Special School for Teacher Training	Yang-chou	none	4	General
Shanghai Special School for Teacher Training	Shanghai	none	9	General

[Face p. 330 (b)]

Jen-min Shou-ts'e, 1955 [People's Handbook, 1955], Tientsin, Ta-kung pao, 1955, pp. 564-7.

873 1954, 49 universities and colleges were in operation in East China.[45] Among them were 29 advanced technical schools, 9 teachers' colleges, 7 colleges specializing in social sciences, physical education, or the arts, and 4 "comprehensive" universities. Many of these schools simultaneously conducted two- and three-year special courses. The establishment of short-term special courses is in accordance with the Communist policy of preparing sufficient technical personnel to meet the needs of the national reconstruction program.

Problems were created by the "planned distribution" of college graduates to places where they would be needed. Throughout their years in colleges the students were told that "to think of salary is mercenary and to dodge government assignment is political desertion."[46] From the beginning of 1950 to the end of 1952, the Central People's Government had assigned 74,000 graduates of institutions of higher learning to various parts of China and another 34,000 were to be assigned during 1953. It is not known how many students from East China have been thus assigned during the past five years. However as recently as August 1955 the People's Daily of Peking reported the departure of 540 Nanking

45. People's Handbook 1955, pp. 564-67; (See Table II).

46. Kao-teng Hsueh-hsiao Pi-yeh-sheng Ti Kuang-yung Jen-wu [The Glorious Mission of College Graduates], Shanghai, Hua-tung jen-min ch'u-pan-she, 1953, pp. 12-13.

873 students for Sinkiang.[47] The report said that most of the students were middle school graduates and 33 per cent were girls. Obviously, the practice of assigning students to work where they are needed is still practised in East China.

D. The Teachers' Training Program

875 As shown in Chart 2, colleges and secondary schools for teacher training have equal standing with general schools on the same levels. In their curricula, the teachers' training schools stress certain aspects which are not emphasized in general educational institutions. The urgent need for trained teachers for schools on different levels was first announced in October 1950 by Ma. Hsü-lun, then Minister of Education. Ma told the first All-China Conference on Primary Education and Teachers' Training that, before 1957, according to the planned expansion of schools, China would need 1 000,000 new teachers. Of these 200,000 would be for "spare-time" schools for peasants and workers, 130,000 for regular middle schools, 10,000 for colleges, and the remainder for kindergartens.[48]

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47. Quoted in Union Research Service (a China Mainland press digest bulletin), No. 4, Hong Kong, Union Research Institute, September 27, 1955, p. 7.

48. The Slave Culture and Education of Chinese Communists, p. 23.

875 Tung Ch'un-ts'ai, Vice-Minister of Education, again warned that there would be a shortage of 100,000 secondary school teachers in the next five years.[51] Nine months later, a report from the Ministry of Education stated that, according to plan the expansion of the secondary schools in 1954 would call for about 28,000 additional teachers. Yet all the teachers' colleges in China would graduate no more than 9,600 teachers in 1954. It was estimated that of this number only about 7,600 teachers (new) would be available, since some of the graduates would be "asked" to remain on the staff of the teachers' colleges, which would have to be expanded at the same time.

Political training for future teachers is stressed in all the teachers' colleges. The curricula designed by the Ministry of Education specify that 33.8 per cent of the total credit hours for a teacher in training must be devoted to the "history of Communist revolution," Marxian and Leninist theories, psychology, the Communist theory of education, the study of Communist teaching methods, and physical education.[52]

E. Schools for Peasants, Workers, Cadres, and the Illiterate.

873 To give political and technical training to peasants, workers, and other "cadres" is one

51. People's Education, January, 1954, pp. 17-18.

52. Ibid., September 1954. pp. 9-10.

●873 of the basic principles of the Communists' theory of education. A broad program for this purpose was outlined at the All-China Conference on Education for Peasants and Workers by Ch'ien Chün-jui, Vice-Minister of Education, on September 30, 1950.[53] He quoted Mao Tse-tung as saying that, because the peasants and workers constituted over 80 per cent of China's population, they were the main force upon which would depend the transition of Chinese society from the "New Democracy" to socialism. Ch'ien stressed the following points: (1) The most immediate task was to combat illiteracy. (2) The cadres among the peasants and workers must be the first to be educated so that they would provide proper leadership for the masses. (3) This type of education must be adapted to local conditions.

No line of demarcation can be clearly drawn between the educational institutions for peasants and workers and those for Party and government cadres. Altogether these schools form a part of the regular school system. As Ch'eng Fang-wu, former president of the College of the War of Resistance at Yenan reported in July 1952,[54] the development of this type of education under the Communists could be traced back to Mao Tse-tung's Peasant Movement Institute in Hunan in the early days of the Chinese Communist movement. Later, when the Communists

53. Ibid., May 1951, pp. 12-16.
54. Ibid., July 1952, p. 6.

873 established a stronghold in southern Kiangsi Province, cadre schools were established to train political and military personnel. These institutions were succeeded by the College of the War of Resistance and by the Northern Shensi Institute in Yenan in the 1930's and early 1940's. As the Communist Army occupied North China after World War II, the North China University and the North China People's Revolutionary University were established for cadre-training. After 1949, the Chinese People's University was established in Peking, with 30 per cent of its curricula devoted to political education and 70 per cent to the specific fields in which the students were specializing.

In 1950, a Communist survey asserted that about 765,000 workers and over 25,000,000 peasants were enrolled in night schools, "winter-schools," and other classes during their spare time.[55] In the same year in Kiangsu Province, about 500 such schools were in operation. In November 1951, about 440,000 workers were studying in spare-time schools in East China. These workers had the opportunity to advance to any one of the ten secondary schools in the region established exclusively for the "proletariat." In the winter of 1951, over 7,000,000

55. Ibid., January 1953, p. 16.

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873 peasants of East China attended winter schools.[56]

By October 1952, the Communists in East China claimed, the number of spare-time school students had increased to 786,000, tripling the number enrolled in 1950; and over 16,680,000 peasants were enrolled in winter schools. In December 1954, the winter schools in Shantung Province reported the registration of 2,850,000 peasants.[57] Women constituted a sizeable proportion of the student body in such schools. A report in March 1955 estimated that over 22 per cent of the spare-time students in Shanghai were women.[58]

Many of these spare-time classes were organized to eliminate illiteracy. Soldiers were encouraged to study during their off-duty hours. The much-publicized "accelerated course" invented by Ch'i Chien-hua, a cultural cadre attached to the army, to teach the Chinese written language, was first pronounced successful among soldiers.

In the proletarian" (peasants and workers) accelerated secondary schools (see Chart 2),

56. Liberation Daily, Nov. 28, 1951.
57. Ibid., Oct. 1, 1952, p. 5; SCMP, No. 994, p. 29.
58. SCMP, No. 1002, Mar. 8, 1955, pp. 1-6.

873 a formal curriculum was pursued. The courses taught were similar to those in regular secondary schools, except that emphasis was placed on technical subjects. Any subject which has no direct bearing on farm or factory work is simplified in order to shorten the time of study. In the classes conducted for the peasants and workers, political study consists of lectures and discussions using as topics whatever happens to coincide with the most recent official Party propaganda line. For political cadres, the study of Marxian and other Communist theories are required. The Central Commitee of the Communist Party periodically issues directives listing the works of Marx, Lenin, and Mao Tse-tung to be studied. Chiefs of local Party branches are charged with the responsibility of supervising these studies at weekly meetings.[59] In Shanghai, where there is a large concentration of workers, such political organizations as the National Democratic Youth Corps and the All-China Federation of Labor Unions joined in the political education programs.[60]

Once the students have graduated from beginning language classes, they are given the opportunity to advance to higher levels of learning. An attempt is made to raise the academic level of cadres among peasants and workers to that of graduates of regular schools. In a directive

59. A sample list of materials to be studied is found in People's Handbook 1955, pp. 535-36.

60. Survey of China Mainland Press, No. 999, pp. 20-21.

873 issued by the Communist Party on December 24 195 , [61] it was stated that those who pursued spare-time study at least six hours a week for forty weeks a year, covering the essential courses prescribed for the primary school level, were entitled to enroll in a junior secondary school. Three years of similar spare-time study covering junior secondary school courses would enable students to enroll in senior secondary school. Any person pursuing studies in his spare-time could complete his education by attending right colleges.

Another development in education for peasants and workers reflected in the Communist claim that the percentage of students with a peasant- or worker-family background has risen sharply. By 1955, these figures were 21.94 per cent for primary schools. [62] In East China, several provincial governments reported in 1950 that a high percentage of primary school students were children of peasants and workers. In November 1951, over 80 per cent of East China's primary school students were said to have come from "proletarian" families. [63] Although the Communists claimed that these figures indicated an increase in education among the proletariat, they also admitted that the schools had not been paying sufficient attention to the children of the proletariat, who felt that they were discriminated against, and that the cost of education often

61. People's Handbook, 1955, p. 538.
62. Communist Education in the Past Five Years, p. 3.
63. Liberation Daily, Nov. 28, 1951.

873 hindered the furtherance of their education.

Official concern was expressed by the Communists over the lack of preparation on the part of some of the cadres enrolled in higher level cadre schools.[64] To remedy this situation, educational authorities are now trying to strengthen the spare-time classes by giving refresher courses to those students who are deficient.

V. SOME OBSERVATIONS

871 ### A. The Character of Communist Education

Two significant characteristics of the Communist educational system are the degree of specialization found in the school system and the centralization of control over the content of the subjects taught in these schools. The measures so far adopted by the Communists in reorganizing the schools with emphasis on the devlopment of technical institutions, are necessary in view of the urgency of economic reconstruction as outlined in the first Five-Year Plan. The centralization of control begins with the indoctrination of the teachers and rigid supervision of the publication of textbooks. Every teacher is told what to say and how to say it. To be sure the Communists have yet to achieve complete uniformity in education in conformity with the Party line, but all possible efforts are made to guard against deviation.

64. People's Education, Aug. 1953, pp. 31-32.

D. Labor Education and Recreation

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146 Illiteracy is one of the great obstacles hindering industrial development in China. Before the Communists gained control of Mainland China in 1949, some 60 per cent of the workers were semi-literate (i.e., could read less than 1,000 Chinese characters). In June 1950, the Government Administration Council issued "Instructions for Developing Spare-time Education of Workers," which aimed to teach every illiterate worker at least 1,000 characters over a period of three to five years. The Communist trade union regulations stipulate that all enterprises are to allocate a certain sum for the education of workers. The "quick method" of learning Chinese characters evolved by Ch'i Chien-hua, a cultural instructor of the Communist army, increased literacy among the workers.

In 1950, almost every factory in Shanghai, Tsinan, Tsingtao, and Nanking established night classes for the workers. By 1954, more than 10,000 industrial workers and government employees in East China were granted leave to attend technical or secondary schools. Those who attended classes continued

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49. Another project in the first Five-Year Plan in East China is the development of the Ma-an-shan iron mine.

50. NCNA, January 7; April 15, 1955.

873 to receive their original pay. The trade union, 466 the Party, and management were authorized to decide which workers qualified for additional technical training. In 1950 the East China Region sent 174 industrial workers of an advanced intellectual level to the Chinese People's University in Peking[51] as part of the Communist plan to create a new intelligentsia among the working class.

461 The Communists say that recreation -- the 466 privilege of the few in the past -- is now an integral part of the workers' lives. After work, workers may go to their own clubs to play chess, card games, or Ping-pong, or in other ways to enjoy their leisure time. Many factories show films or hold dances on weekends. By the end of 1954, some 11,929 clubs had been established in factories, mines, and other enterprises throughout China; Shanghai alone had over 800 workers' clubs. For the first time, workers had the opportunity to take part in athletic activities. At a provincial track meet in Chekiang Province in 1951, workers and peasants took the first four places in a 10,000 meter race.[52]

The validity of the above reports can be questioned. Workers have the facilities for

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51. Workers' Daily, Jan. 6, 1950, p. 1; NCNA, Shanghai, June 2, 1954.

52. Chinese Youth Enjoys a Happy Life, p. 28; NCNA, Shanghai, September 21, 1954.